DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 218 707 EA 014 631

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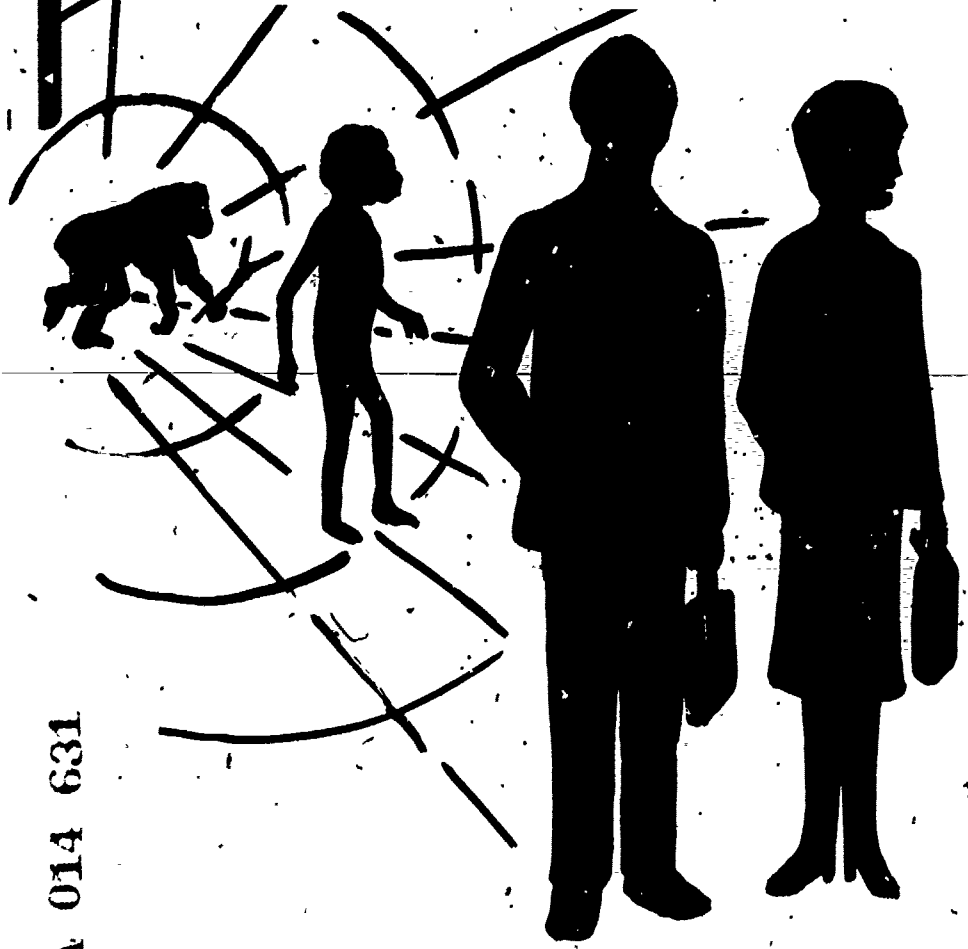
TITLE The Evolution and Training of School Principals.
INSTITUTION Richland County School District 1, Columbia, S.C.; South Carolina Univ., Columbia. School of Education.
SPONS AGENCY Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Dec 81
NOTE 49p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Education; *Educational History; *Educational Trends; Elementary Secondary Education; Field Experience Programs; *Management Development; National Surveys; *Principals
IDENTIFIERS Contingency Framework Administrator Development; Experimental Preparation Program; NASSP Internship Project; Project ICES

ABSTRACT

Beginning with an historical description of the development of the principalship, this monograph gives a comprehensive analysis of both current and evolving training programs for principals. Given particular attention are field-based training programs and administrative internships, particulary the National Association of Secondary School Principals' Internship Project. Also described are the McCleary model for competency-based training for school administrators, Indiana State University's Experimental Preparation Program, and Project ICES (Internships, Certification, Equity-Leadership and Support). The author lists eight obstacles to field-based training and offers eight recommendations for increasing the effectiveness of field-based training experiences. The final section of the monograph discusses future trends in principal training programs, based on the results of a national survey conducted in 1981 of principals, department of education personnel in all states, and college professors. Increasing, static, and decreasing trends are identified. Additionally, the Contingency Framework for Administrator Development is presented as a flexible model for administrator training. (Author/WD)

The Evolution and Training of School Principals



Cover Design by Nancy Pellicer

The Evolution and Training of School Principals

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This report is a product of a cooperative administrator development program supported by the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education between Richland County School District I and the University of South Carolina.

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The Historical Development of the Principalship

What is a principal? How has the principalship developed over the years? What are the major elements of training programs for principals — yesterday, today, and tomorrow? This document presents some answers to these questions. It is organized into three sections: (1) The Historical Development of the Principalship, (2) Training Programs for Principals, and (3) Future Trends in Principal Training Programs.

The principalship, as it is known today, has haltingly and sporadically evolved. Great variations exist in its development. The principalship emerged in separate regions of the country at different times. It was fairly well established in the secondary school system before it became a part of the elementary system. Following is a compilation of the major elements in the development of the secondary and elementary principalship in the United States.

Origins: 1647-1900

The Massachusetts law of 1647 required the establishment of an elementary school in every town of fifty or more families and a grammar school in every town of one hundred or more families. Selectmen were responsible for maintaining these schools, thus becoming the first lay representatives of school management. The selectmen found themselves surrounded by a growing number of school problems, so they appointed special committees to help them manage these problems. These committees eventually obtained an identity apart from the selectmen, and the school board came into existence (Jones, Salisbury & Spencer, 1969).

During the period when the selectmen and the school committees operated the schools, a school with more than one teacher generally had a head teacher (Jones, et al., 1969). The head teacher was known by various titles: head master, rector, preceptor, provost, and occasionally, principal (Ensign, 1923). Eliphalet Pearson, the first head of the prestigious Phillips Academy, was officially know as preceptor. The school's records, however, frequently refer to him as "Principal Pearson." In a 1786 contract, Pearson's replacement was officially assigned the title of principal (Ensign, 1923). The Common School Report of Cincinnati included the term "Principal" in 1838, and in 1841, Horace Mann made reference to a "male principal" in the *Fourth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts* (Pierce, 1935, p. 11).

As larger schools developed during the latter half of the eighteenth century, the need for organization and coordination of the instructional program grew. Teachers had authority over their own classes, but in most cases no one had real authority over the entire school. The head teachers, still only occasionally referred to as "principal," had to assume responsibility for "determining the time of opening and closing the school, scheduling classes, securing supplies and equipment, taking care of and managing the building, and communicating with parents and patrons" (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1963, p. 6). In addition to these duties, principals were often required to teach almost a full load (Jones, et al., 1969). The principal also frequently served as the liaison between the teachers and the board of education, becoming, in fact, the prototype of the superintendent of schools. In 1837 the position of superintendent emerged in the systems of Buffalo, New York, and Louisville, Kentucky. The superintendency affected the role of the principal who no longer worked with the board of

education. The principal became responsible to the superintendent and was likely to serve as the liaison between the central office and his teachers (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1963).

The precise date of the emergence of the elementary school principal in America is not known. The Quincy School in Boston may have had the first supervising principal in 1847 (Fabor & Shearron, 1970). Evidently, these early principals represented "an administrative convenience rather than positions of recognized leadership" (Spain, Drummond & Goodland, 1956, p. 24). Elementary principals in Cincinnati were to perform these duties:

1. function as the head of the school charged to his care;
2. regulate the classes and courses of instruction of all pupils, whether they occupied his room or the rooms of other teachers;
3. discover any defects in the school and apply remedies;
4. make defects known to the visitors or trustees of wards, or districts, if he were unable to remedy conditions;
5. give necessary instruction to his assistants;
6. classify pupils;
7. safeguard school houses and furniture;
8. keep the school clean;
9. instruct assistants;
10. refrain from impairing the standing of assistants, especially in the eyes of their pupils;
11. require the cooperation of his assistants (Pierce, 1935, p. 12).

Principals were selected on the basis of their knowledge of teaching methods, of characteristics of children, and of common school problems.

With increasing enrollments during the latter half of the nineteenth century, the problems of the schools became more complex. As a result, the role of the principal began to change. Principals, though still teaching, were spending less time in instruction. Boston principals in 1858 taught a half day and attended to administrative duties during the other half. By 1867, principals in New York City were relieved of all teaching duties, but nationally, non-teaching principals were still the exception. As late as 1881, Chicago principals were required to devote as much as one-half of the day to instruction (Pierce, 1935). Responsibility for routine and clerical duties gradually declined, while the principal was increasingly responsible for the general management of the school. This changing role was due primarily to the crowded conditions in the school and the large number of minimally qualified teachers. The principal's role shifted from that of the "presiding teacher" of the school to one of "directing manager" (Gross & Herriott, 1965). Supervisory duties also increased. An 1859 list of activities performed by principals included: (1) examination of classes, (2) classification of students, (3) promotion of students, (4) conducting model lessons, and (5) exercising careful supervision over the discipline and instruction of the whole school. In addition, many high school principals were given supervisory duties over the elementary schools in their districts (Pierce, 1935).

With these changes the status of the principal in the community increased. Often the high school principal was referred to as "The Professor." He was accorded more respect than either the elementary principal or the superintendent and was considered to be the scholarly, highly cultured, intellectual leader of the community (Anderson & Dyke, 1963). In 1884, Superintendent Howe of Chicago stated, "The prime factor

in the success of individual schools is the Principal . . ." (Pierce, 1935, p. 39).

1900 — Present

As the twentieth century approached, the board of education and the superintendent became convinced that the principal should have more control over his school (Benden, 1966). Principals were beginning to be formally recognized as the official intermediary between the teachers and the higher administration. They were given the right to set and enforce standards that the students must meet before graduation. In addition,

> Principals had the right to direct teachers, enforce safeguards to protect the health and morals of pupils, supervise and rate janitors, require the cooperation of parents, and requisition educational supplies. They were clearly recognized as the responsible administrative heads of their schools (Gross & Herriott, 1965, p. 3).

The principal was also given increased responsibility for the selection and assignment of teachers. A New York City education policy (1899) reads: "No young teacher can be appointed to any school until after a time of probation, nor without the unequivocal recommendation of the principal" (Pierce, 1935, p. 36).

However, as principals became more responsible for the internal management of schools, they became more content in their positions. Though they were granted many opportunities for professional leadership, they were slow in responding. During the period from 1895 to 1910, principals wrote little about their experiences; they were reluctant to try new procedures; they conducted minimal research in the field of educational administration. Principals, like their teachers, were professionally conservative. There was a tendency to maintain the status quo. As long as there were no major problems, principals were content to let each teacher manage his own classes. Supervision and evaluation were perfunctory. The principals fretted about clerical problems and petty routine. They were reluctant to become vigorous, dynamic leaders. Principals hid behind their tenure rights, more concerned about the welfare of their positions than about the school's instructional program (Pierce, 1935). A portion of the *Annual Report of the School Committee of Boston,* 1903, vividly illustrates this inertia. Superintendent Seaver related that

> a visitor, on asking the grammar school master if he might visit the classes in a natural science, was told that there was none. When the visitor insisted that natural science was in the course of study, the grammar master replied that principals allowed the superintendent to keep it there for ornamental purposes, but they did not pretend to do anything about it (Pierce, 1935, p. 19).

The American High School (1915), by John Franklin Brown, provides insight into the role and status of the principal in 1915. He calls the position "ancient and honorable." In describing the qualities that principals should possess, he lists — in addition to all the qualifications of the teacher — (1) leadership; "a good organizer and a good manager of people" (2) knowledge, (3) self-confidence, (4) common sense, (5) understanding of human nature, and (6) personality; "honest, wise, sympathetic" (pp. 224-227).

In 1915 many principals were apparently still teaching. In schools where fewer than six teachers were employed, the principal's duties were "confined to teaching and the partial management of the schools" (Brown, 1915, p. 229). Principals had little input in the selection of teachers and even referred severe student discipline cases to the superintendent.

In larger schools, principals were providing evaluative supervision. Brown lists three in which the principal assisted the teacher:

1. He may point out some personal habit or mannerism which is likely to interfere with success.
2. He may help the teacher to do better teaching by quietly calling his attention to specific ways in which improvement is possible.
3. He may help the teacher in matters of discipline and management by calling attention to what may reasonably be expected of a certain pupil in a given situation and by helping him to study impulses and motives — his own as well as those of students (Brown, 1915, pp. 230-231).

In his description of the principal, Brown reflects the predominant feelings of the period: "Generally speaking, men make better principals than women, especially in large schools" (Brown, 1915, p. 240). His reasons for this were numerous. He felt that men were physically stronger and possessed more executive ability than women and that men were more likely to command fully the respect and confidence of male students and male citizens. Additionally, he believed that men were more judicial in mind and less likely to look at things from the personal point of view. Brown felt that men were more sure to seize upon the importance of a question and that they were likely to be better supported by subordinates (Brown, 1915).

The 1921 formation of the National Association of Elementary School Principals helped to strengthen the role of the principal. Studies by the Association and its publications stressed the responsibility of the principal to offer staff leadership. It became apparent — though not formally expressed — that one of the goals of the Association was to move principals from the "routine and purely housekeeping facets of their work to control of the instructional program" (Gross & Herriott, 1965, p. 4).

Interest in the study of the principalship began to increase around 1919. Several studies contributed to the increasing professionalism of the position. In 1919-1920 a study was undertaken to ascertain the role of elementary school principals. First, professors of education ranked various functions in order of importance. They ranked "supervision of teaching" as most important, followed by "administration," "community leadership," "professional study," and "clerical work." From this list, the duties of "supervision," "administration," and "clerical duties" were chosen for further study. School superintendents were asked to evaluate these three duties in terms of the percentage of time they expected their principals to devote to each. Their expectations, in terms of the median percentage, was:

Supervision	50%
Administration	20%
Clerical Duties	10%

When the principals were asked to give the amount of time they actually spent on these duties, the discrepancies were astounding. In reality, the median number of minutes spent per week in administration was 882.5. Principals spent 650 minutes each week supervising teachers and 510 minutes tending to clerical duties (McClure, 1921).

Boggs studied school board regulations regarding the responsibilities of principals in thirty large cities in 1920. His conclusion was:

> It appears that in the judgment of most school boards and superintendents, principals are not mainly officers of professional supervision, but rather odd-job and clerical workers whose business it is to keep the machinery well-oiled and smoothly running while other people perform the higher professional functions (Boggs, 1920, p. 741).

Cubberly reported in 1923 on one study conducted by the Committee on Standards and Training for Elementary School Principalship. Of the six hundred forty-seven principals studied, forty seven percent held degrees and eighty-five percent were college graduates. The median elementary school principal was a graduate of a two-year normal school (an institution for the training of teachers, dating back to 1839 [DeYoung & Wynn, 1972]) and was normal-certificated. Thirty-four percent of the principals were working toward a degree. The median elementary school principal in Pennsylvania was fifty-one years old and had ten years of experience as an elementary principal. Still, in 1923, twenty-one percent of the Pennsylvania elementary principals taught full-time in addition to their principalship duties, and fifty-one percent had no clerical assistance. Of the principals surveyed, fifty-seven percent were women most of whom held a normal certificate and earned a median annual salary of $2400. The median annual salary of male principals was $2963. Principals were also asked the education courses thay regarded as most valuable. They listed "supervision," "administration," "tests and measurements," "techniques of teaching," "child or adolescent psychology," "educational psychology," "the principal," " psychology of elementary school subjects," "principles of education," and "classroom management" (Cubberly, 1923).

A similar study of high school principals was reported in 1924. More than four hundred secondary principals were included in the study. Less than forty were women. As the size of the community and the number of high school students increased, the proportion of female principals decreased. The median salary for female principals was forty percent of the male principal's median salary. Salaries for males ranged from $1400 to $6000; their female counterparts earned for $1452 to $2500. Less than one-quarter of the principals held graduate degrees; most (66.5%) held bachelor degrees and slightly over eight percent held no degree at all (Koos, 1924).

The study further revealed that some of the principals were receiving additional professional training at colleges and universities during summer sessions. While the median principal had taken nine education courses, almost a third of them had taken less than four education courses. More than five percent of the principals had *never* taken an education course. The principals in the study were asked to indicate the education courses which seemed to be of most use to them as principals. Sixty-one percent chose "high school administration." Only two other courses, "supervision" and "psychology of adolescence," were viewed as useful by more than twenty percent of the principals (27.5% and 20.3% respectively). Other courses which were chosen by at least ten percent of the principals were "principles of secondary education," "educational psychology," "city-school administration," "educational measurements," "high school curriculum," "philosophy of education," "mental measurements," "psychology of high school subjects," "vocational guidance," and "technique" (or general methods). The principals also indicated courses outside the field of education which were of most use to them. Slightly less than twenty-three percent of the principals chose English. Psychology (not educational), public speaking, and sociology were also chosen by more than ten percent of the principals (Koos, 1924). Only 6.2% of the principals studied had planned to engage in educational administration, leading Koos to conclude:

> The high school principalship is an occupation upon the work of which entrance is made without its having been planned for during the period of undergraduate training and with nothing in the way of special training, other than that necessary for teaching, having been taken to prepare for its responsibilities (Koos, 1924, p. 49).

Koos also investigated the activities initiated by principals and others in the school district. Table 1 indicates the percentages of four hundred twenty-one high schools in which initiative in certain activities was located in the principal or in the principal and superintendent working cooperatively. In the remaining schools, these activities were initiated by the superintendent alone, by the board, or by other officials or combinations of officials (Koos, 1924).

TABLE 1

Activities Initiated by Principals Alone and by Principals and Superintendents Cooperatively

Activities	Principals	Principal and Superintendents
1. Selecting new high school teachers	16.6	27.1
2. Recommending salary promotion	15.0	21 9
3. Planning the course of study	54.4	23.5
4. Organizing the class schedule	87.9	4.0
5. Admitting students	67.7	8.3
6. Advising concerning courses and curricula	77.4	9.5
7. Visiting classwork for supervisory purposes	51.1	27.8
8. Conferring with teachers about classwork	66.0	20.4
9. Calling and holding teachers' meetings	79.3	11.2
10. Ordinary disciplinary control	86.7	2.4
11. Disciplinary control involving suspension or expulsion	38.0	18.3
12. Controlling athletic relations	69.1	6.2
13. Controlling debating, dramatics, etc.	70.3	6.2
14. Selecting textbooks	27.8	22.3
15. Selecting equipment	26.4	26 4
16. Approving supply lists	27.1	16.2
17. Preparing the financial budget	7.1	7.8
18. Directing janitors	54.2	14.0
19. Keeping records and reports	81.0	3.1

The principals were also asked to report on what aspect of the principalship they were in most need of information. Respondents indicated that they needed information concerning administration, supervision, curriculum, responsibilities of the principal, and guidance (Koos, 1924).

Koos' 1924 study led him to the conclusion that the principal did not yet enjoy professional status. Koos felt, however, that the doors to professionalism were wide open and that several routes existed, including:

> extension of the periods and proportions of specialized training, recruiting capable young men for the work, adding by means of research to the special content pertinent to the principalship but still nowhere available, and seeking responsibility for more significant functions of administration and supervision of the high school (Koos, 1924, p. 106).

In 1928 a study was conducted to ascertain the percentage of time that principals spent in five different task areas. Principals spent thirty-four percent of their time in supervisory duties which included pupil personnel duties. They spent thirty percent of time performing administrative tasks. Eighteen percent of the principal's time

was spent in clerical work, while fourteen percent was devoted to "other functions" which included, but was not limited to, community activities. In 1928, principals were spending four percent of their time teaching (Elsbree & McNally, 1959).

Principals were not only managing schools in the early 1900's. Some principals were creatively adding activities to their school's programs. Pierce reports on the activities by principals from 1915 to 1930 in three large cities – St. Louis, Chicago, and New York. He lists (1) pupil clubs, (2) supervision of playground activities at recess, (3) school newspapers, (4) pupil activities for promoting courtesy, (5) safety patrols, (6) clean-up campaigns, (7) providing clothing and food for the poor, (8) equipping schools with motion picture machines, (9) experimental work in character education, and (10) radio instruction (Pierce, 1935).

A survey of elementary supervising principals at this time revealed that forty-five percent of them were men and fifty-five percent were women. Only forty-six percent of these principals held at least a Bachelor's degree; sixteen percent of them held at least a Master's. The survey also showed that the average elementary supervising principal spent two hours each week in community work. Twenty-nine and a half percent of the principals had the assistance of one or more full-time clerks. The median salary of elementary supervising principals for the school year 1926-1927 was $2710. Principals still were minimally involved with curriculum. Sixty-nine percent of the elementary principals studied reported that the school curriculum was developed by teacher committees under the supervision of the superintendent. Seventy percent of the principals, however, reported that they determined the placement of students. Twenty-six percent of them reported that they had no voice in teacher selection (Cooper, 1967).

Pierce's summary of the major accomplishments made by principals between 1918 and 1935 is enlightening. The principal's supervisory functions generally increased. The use of standardized achievement tests and group intelligence tests made supervisory procedures more precise. Research technology facilitated experimentation in classroom methods and materials, and many principals became skilled in conducting such experiments. Principals were able to "apply the methods of case study to solve the difficulties of mal-adjusted pupils." They diagnosed teaching and learning difficulties and classified pupils on scientific bases. Pierce felt that the greatest advancement made by principals at this time was their tendency to be critical of their own practices and to apply the methods of science to bring about improvement (Pierce, 1935).

Pierce reported that from 1918 to 1935, principals worked to improve their image as community leaders. Principals encouraged school and community participation in Education Week. They secured school publicity through newspapers and radio. They attempted to actively prepare students as better citizens through such mediums as "clean-up campaigns, sane celebrations of holidays, and cooperation with public services." Principals aligned themselves with police and fire departments in safety promotions and with election officials in dissemination of voter information (Pierce, 1935, p. 218).

Principals became more proficient as instructional leaders. Professional schools offered after-school seminars for principal in-service and instituted training programs for the elementary and secondary school principals. Principals were active in planning in-service programs for teachers and in conducting instructional technique classes after school and on Saturdays. Pierce called the principals "students of the science of education and the educational leaders of their teachers" (Pierce, 1935, p. 221). The principal's instructional involvement tended to promote the feeling that the principalship, in itself, was, indeed, a professional career.

The feeling of growing professionalism continued throughout the thirties and into the forties. Accrediting agencies contributed to the professionalism of the principalship by increasing the educational requirements for principals. A study of 561 high school principals in 1948 revealed that all of them had a Bach' ' degree and nearly three-fourths possessed a Master's degree. More principals al ad some teaching experience prior to entering the principalship (Farmer, 1948). A s dy of elementary principals yielded similar findings. Ninety-seven percent of the su vising elementary principals held at least a Bachelor's degree in 1948. Sixty-four percent held a Master's degree. This study revealed that eighty-eight percent of the teaching principals held at least a Bachelor's degree and thirty-eight percent held a Master's degree (Jacobson, Reayes, & Logsdon, 1954). In 1948, supervising principals were spending thirty nine percent of their time performing supervisory duties. Administrative duties consumed twenty-nine percent of their time. Supervising principals spent only two percent of their time teaching, the remainder of their time was divided equally between clerical work and other functions (Elsbree & McNally, 1959). By 1948, the percentage of male elementary supervising principals had increased to fifty-nine percent. Female representation had dropped to forty-one percent. Nearly half (47%) of the elementary principals in 1948 had one or more full-time clerks. The principals spent an average of 3.1 hours in community work each week and earned a median salary of $3622. The amount of authority given to elementary principals in the late 1940's was still minimal. Six percent of the principals studied reported that they were *never* consulted on school system policies. Twenty percent had no voice in teacher selection; thirty percent could use only standard curricular materials provided to all schools in the system. Over half of the principals (52%) had no voice in budget matters (Cooper, 1967).

Very little, in terms of time allocation, had changed for the principal by 1958. Principals were spending slightly less time in supervision (35%) and slightly more time in administration (30%). They were teaching three percent of the time, performing clerical duties fourteen percent of the time, and performing other duties eighteen percent of the time (Elsbree & McNally, 1959). By 1958 the percentage of male elementary supervising principals had risen to sixty-two percent. Ninty-eight percent of the principals had earned at least a Bachelor's degree, and six percent held a Ph.D. or the equivalent. Time spent in community work also increased. Principals were spending 3.6 hours per week working with the community. Fifty-eight percent of these principals employed one or more full-time clerks. The median salary for elementary supervising principals in 1958 was $6600. Although forty-five percent of the principals reported they had no voice in teacher selection, in most areas of responsibility their participation was increasing. Fifty-nine percent reported involvement in curriculum development. Seventy-one percent reported joint involvement (teacher, principal, parent) in the placement of students within the framework of school board policy. Only five percent of the principals reported they were never consulted on school system policy; twenty-five percent reported no involvement in budget matters (Cooper, 1967). According to estimates by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, in 1959-1960, there were 28,000 principals and assistant principals in public schools throughout the United States. The duties of the principalship continued to increase. A 1963 textbook lists these duties that "the truly professional principal must be competent to perform" (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1963. pp.10-11).

1. Leadership in curriculum planning.
2. Study and discussion of educational theory and current development in secondary

education with the professional staff and school patrons.
3. Organization of a program of studies appropriate to the needs of the pupils, community, and nation.
4. Development of guidance and counseling services.
5. Management of auxiliary services such as health, transportation, and cafeteria.
6. Procurement and organization of library and instructional facilities and services.
7. Participation in the selection of teachers and organization of the faculty to provide high-quality instruction.
8. Development of conditions within the school conducive to high morale and development of good citizenship on the part of students.
9. Development and maintenance of good faculty morale.
10. Development and maintenance of an effective program of in-service education for the faculty.
11. Development and maintenance of a sound program of extra classroom activities for all pupils.
12. Organization of the school day and year so that the instructional program functions effectively.
13. Organization and management of records and office routine needed for the effective educational and business management of the school.
14. Provision of leadership for participation of citizens in school affairs.
15. Interpretation of the program of the school to the community, the superintendent of schools, and the board of education.
16. Participation in coordinating educational services for youth in the community.
17. Management and supervision of the maintenance of the high school plant and other physical facilities.
18. Participation in the development of plans for future buildings.
19. Maintenance of cooperative and effective relations with legal agencies, accrediting agencies and other educational institutions.
20. Contributions to the advancement of the teaching profession.

Anderson and Van Dyke (Table 2) conducted a national survey to investigate the certification requirements for secondary principals in each state (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1963). Since there were no national standards, the requirements varied greatly from one state to another. In 1960-61, no principal's certificates were granted by the District of Columbia or Michigan. Three states — Massachusetts, Missouri, and Wisconsin — required no teaching experience prior to principal certification, while Hawaii required five years of teaching experience. The number of hours required in administration and supervision ranged from three (in Massachusetts) to thirty (in Florida, Georgia, and Texas), with the median being twelve semester hours. Connecticut had the greatest degree requirement — a master's degree plus six hours.

The training of administrators received much attention during the early sixties. Douglass commented on this further push for the professionalization of the principalship:

> It seems most probable that the high school principalship of the near future, along with the school superintendency, will constitute a truly professional calling, which will require not only distinctly superior mental and personal characteristics but, also, continued technical and professional training and which will afford responsibility and prestige on a par with those of the more generally recognized professions of medicine, law, and architecture (Douglass, 1963, p. 36).

Douglass advocated continued professional study in the field of educational ad-

TABLE 2

Minimum Requirements in Teaching Experience, Degrees, and/or Semester Hours for Secondary Principal's Certificate 1960-61

States and Territories	Graduate Hours or Degree*	Hours in Administration and Supervision	Years of Teaching Experience	States and Territories	Graduate Hours or Degree*	Hours in Administration and Supervision	Years of Teaching Experience
Alabama	B.A. + 9	9	3	Montana	M.A.	10	3
Alaska	B.A. + 16	16	3	Nebraska	B.A. + 15	15	3
Arizona	M.A.	9-12	3	Nevada	B.A. + 16	16	3
Arkansas	M.A.	15	3	New Hampshire	B.A. + 18	6	3
California	48	†	2	New Jersey	B.A. + 24	24	3
Colorado	M.A.	10	3	New Mexico	M.A.	16	3
Connecticut	M.A. + 6	9	3	New York	B.A. + 6	6	2
Delaware	M.A.	9	5	North Carolina	M.A.	12	3
District of Columbia	No certificate granted.			North Dakota	B.A. + 8	8	3
Florida	M.A.	30	3	Ohio	B.A. + 12	12	3
Georgia	M.A.	30	3	Oklahoma	M.A.	8	2
Hawaii	B.A. + 6	10	5	Oregon	M.A.	8	3
Idaho	M.A.	12	3	Pennsylvania	M.A. or 30	†	5
Illinois	M.A.	20	4	Puerto Rico	B.A. + 15	15	3
Indiana	M.A.	18	3	Rhode Island	M.A. or 30	15	3
Iowa	M.A.	20	4	South Carolina	M.A.	18	3
Kansas	M.A.	8	2	South Dakota	B.A. + 21	9	2
Kentucky	B.A. + 15	15	3	Tennessee	M.A.	10	3
Louisiana	M.A.	12	3	Texas	30	30	3
Maine	B.A. + 18	6	3	Utah	M.A.	12	3
Maryland	30	†	4	Vermont	30	18	2
Massachusetts	B.A.	3	0	Virginia	M.A.	†	3
Michigan	No certificate granted.			Washington	B.A. + 16	16	3
Minnesota	B.A. + 6	6	1	West Virginia	M.A.		3
Mississippi	B.A. + 12	12	2	Wisconsin	M.A.	†	0
Missouri	M.A.	20	0	Wyoming	M.A.	24	3

*M.A. degree is used as a general term to refer to any master's degree.

†Preparation is required but no specific number of hours is stated.

Note. Secondary School Administration, L. W. Anderson & L. A. Van Dyke, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Ma., 1963, (Reprinted by permission).

ministration. He recommended several years of teaching experience, "at least a year of graduate training for administration," and a second year of non-institutional professional study early in the profession. According to Douglass, a person seeking the principalship should complete academic training in the areas of (1) methods of teaching, (2) educational psychology, (3) curriculum, (4) foundations of education, (5) guidance, and (6) specialization in one or more fields of subject matter taught in the secondary school (Douglass, 1963).

A 1965 study of senior high school principals conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals revealed the attitudes of principals toward the courses they had taken. Fifty-six percent of the principals surveyed rated "supervision of instruction" as essential while forty-five percent rated "human relations" as essential. Other courses which received significant "essential" ratings (above forty percent) were "secondary school organization," "administrative theory and practice," and "curriculum and program development." The 1965 study reported that ten percent of the principals held Bachelor's degrees, thirty-five percent held Master's degrees in education, and four percent held Master's degrees in fields other than education. Forty-seven percent of the principals held Master's degrees plus additional course work, including graduate hours toward a Doctoral degree. The greatest percentage of the principals (29%) had majored in the humanities as undergraduates. Eighteen percent had majored in the sciences, fourteen percent in the social sciences, and only twelve percent in education. The majority did, however, complete graduate work in the field of education. Seventy percent of the principals studied majored in educational administration. Twelve percent majored in secondary education, and seven percent majored in humanities and fine arts (Byrne, Hines, & McCleary, 1979).

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) revealed that the typical high school principal in 1965 was a male, between the ages of 40 and 45, who had obtained his first principalship when he was in his early thirties. He had been a principal for approximately nine years and had been a principal in no more than two schools. (Only twenty-three percent of the principals had served as principal in more than two schools.) The typical principal earned between eight and nine thousand dollars per year (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979).

The NASSP survey looked, too, at the job of the principal. Twenty-nine percent of the principals reported that they worked sixty or more hours per week; eight percent reported work weeks of less than forty hours, while forty-five percent reported working between fifty and fifty-nine hours per week. Apparently principals were still teaching in some schools. Nine percent reported more than half-time teaching responsibilities. Twenty-six percent reported teaching less than half-time (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979).

This survey also asked that principals identify obstacles or "roadblocks" in the achievement of their job objectives. The five greatest roadblocks identified by the principals were (1) variations in the ability of teachers, (2) time taken up by administrative detail, (3) lack of time, (4) inability to provide teacher time, and (5) insufficient space and physical facilities. When asked to rate the influence of interest groups, principals identified the three most influential groups as (1) citizens or parent groups (other than PTA), (2) athletic-minded persons (especially alumni), and (3) state college and/or universities (Byrne, Hines & McCleary).

In 1977, NASSP again undertook a similar study. The principalship had changed somewhat since 1965. When the principals rated courses, the majority (over 70% on each course) chose five as being essential: "school law," "curriculum and program

development," "school management," "supervision of instruction," and "human relations." By 1977, just one percent of the principals surveyed held only the Bachelor's degree. Twelve percent held Master's degrees in education, and two percent held Master's degrees in fields other than education. Sixty-five percent of the principals held Master's degrees with additional course work (some leading to the Doctoral degree). Nine percent of the principals held Specialist degrees and nine percent held Doctorates. Most principals had majored in either social science (26%), science (20%), or physical education (17%) as undergraduates. Their graduate work, however, was mostly in educational administration (71%) (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979).

Males heavily dominated the principalship in 1977, making up ninety-three percent. The typical high school principal was between forty-five and forty-nine years old. He had entered the principalship when he was between thirty and thirty-four and had served in no more than two schools. The typical principal earned between $20,000 and $24,000 per year (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979).

In 1977, no principal reported working less than forty hours per week. The majority (61%) indicated that they worked between fifty and fifty-nine hours per week. Twenty-two percent worked more than sixty hours each week. According to the NASSP study, the number of teaching principals was decreasing. Eighty-five percent reported that they had no teaching responsibilities. Nine percent taught by choice, and four percent taught regularly but less than half-time (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979).

The five greatest obstructions to the successful completion of the principal's job were identified as (1) time taken by administrative detail, (2) lack of time, (3) variations in the ability of teachers, (4) inability to obtain funds, and (5) apathetic or irresponsible parents. The three most frequently reported interest groups in 1977 were the same as those reported in 1965 except that "state teachers' organization" replaced "state college and/or universities" (Byrne, Hines & McCleary, 1979, pp. 25-26).

The principal of the 1980's carries on the ambiguous role of the principalship. The superintendent sees him as the instructional leader of the school, yet an analysis of his actual duties shows that the principal spends a very limited amount of time in instructional leadership. In a pilot test of an instrument to measure time allocation of principals, fourteen middle and junior high principals recorded their major activity each fifteen minutes of a Friday. The cumulative amount of time the principals devoted to various activities is as follows (Howell, 1981):

Paper Work	27 hours
Parent Conferences	11 hours
Personnel Conferences	11 hours
Discipline	8 hours
Scheduling	8 hours
Cafeteria	8 hours
Supervision	6 hours
Instructional Leadership	2 hours

A similar study was undertaken on a nation-wide basis in 1980 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum and Development, the University of Tulsa, and both national elementary and secondary principal's associations. They surveyed one hundred sixty-three elementary, middle, junior, and senior high school principals who reported their major activity during 30-minute time blocks from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. o days. A composite report shows that the average principal spent thirty-two per- f his time with office responsibilities. Faculty and community relations took up

twenty-five percent of his time. The principal spent twenty-one percent of his time with students and fourteen percent of his time with curriculum (the actual range in hours per week was from none to fourteen and a half hours). When the principals were categorized into the type of school they administered, it was found that elementary principals spent more time as instructional leaders (30%) than did middle/junior high school principals (25%) or senior high principals (20%). The middle/junior high principals spent the greatest amount of time with office responsibilities (45%). Only five percent of the principal's time was spent in personal/professional development (Howell, 1981).

After studying the time allocations of principals, Howell made several recommendations:

1. Today's principal is engaging in crises management and general operation. The functions of the principal in instructional improvement in the 80's must be clearly defined as a partnership with teachers in which the leadership responsibility is identified as *instruction expediter.*
2. A series of courses on people management, public relations simulation, accounting, civil law, and time management should be required. These are survival courses for educational managers that can be followed in due time by a capstone of theoretical structures in curriculum.
3. The continuing education of principals now in the field should concentrate on ways to improve time use, tactics for delegation and processes for assessing needs and initiating sound instructional programs. Also stress management, communication techniques, and other coping skills should be included.
4. Term of employment for the principal should provide for adequate professional and financial reward, but not guarantee employment "in perpetdity." Sabbaticals, reassignments to the classroom with added compensation, special assignments in the area of management expertise and other alternatives should be considered for professional employment (Howell, 1981, p. 336).

Thus, the principalship has developed. The principal of today holds much in common with his predecessor. Many aspects of his job, however, are completely new. The job is rapidly changing and expanding, forcing principals to become increasingly adaptive. The next questions logically must be: What kinds of academic experiences have principals had historically? How are principals currently being trained? What trends are likely to influence principal training programs in the future?

Training Programs For Principals

Training programs for principals are relatively new. Much has been written about such programs — most within the past fifty years. Principal training programs in colleges and universities have developed somewhat independently and uniquely. This section includes not only an outline of the major developments in principal training programs, but also various opinions concerning what constitutes effective preparatory training for principals.

Writing about the 1930's, Pierce said, "The position of the principalship became a topic of study in the departments of education of universities, and courses, and even programs, for the training of principals began to appear in the offerings of professional schools" (Pierce, 1935, pp. 22-23). Indeed, we know that beginning in 1913 1914 Columbia University had a course relating to the principalship (Dawson,

A 1930 article stressed the need for professional training at the graduate level for prospective principals and outlined a suggested program for high school principals. (Eikenberry, 1930).

I. Fundamental courses
   A. Philosophy of education
   B. Educational psychology
   C. General introduction to public school administration
   D. History of modern education
   E. Organization of American secondary education
   F. Educational statistics

II. Courses dealing specifically with the work of the high school principal
   A. High school administration
   B. High school supervision
   C. High school curriculum
   D. Administration and supervision of pupil activities
   E. Administration of pupil guidance
   F. Tests and measurement in secondary education
   G. Public relations

III. Courses in administration usually designated for the school superintendent
   A. School finance
   B. Business management
   C. Construction and equipment of school buildings

IV. Thesis dealing with a practical problem in secondary school administration

A largely overlooked aspect of professional training — practical training inservice — was strongly encouraged on the grounds that such experience as an assistant principal or an understudy would provide an opportunity for the student to put into practice the techniques he had learned in his courses. This inservice would enable the prospective principal to enter his first principalship with "confidence in his ability to organize, administer, and supervise the school in accordance with the best theory and practice" (Eikenberry, 1930).

Certification requirements for principals influenced training programs offered by colleges and universities. In 1924, only seven states made distinctions between certificates given to high school teachers and those awarded to high school principals. By 1934, 27 states gave separate principal certificates: Alabama, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming (Burke, 1934).

The courses required for certification in each state were offered in the graduate programs of colleges and universities in that particular state. Generally no fixed curriculum for the preparation of principals existed. Many times the prospective principal's program was designed to meet his individual needs and to include courses required for certification. Burke studied the offerings of 68 leading teacher's colleges and schools of education and 3 departments of education in 3 state universities. He found that 18 of the programs were undergraduate; all others were graduate. The number of required or recommended courses ranged from one to sixteen, with over half of the programs suggesting or prescribing seven or more. Courses with 91 different names appeared on the 46 programs that were submitted to the Burke study (Burke, 1934).

A 1938 study of training programs for principals in the state of New York found that the task of preparing administrators was performed for the most part by nonpublic supported institutions. Certification requirements were established by the State Education Department. The study suggested that the New York Board of Regents designate certain institutions in the state for the preparation of superintendents, principals, and supervisors (Judd, 1938).

An attempt was made in 1943 to ascertain where high school principals learned to be principals (Sifert, 1943). Of the 66 administrative activities listed, in only one, "the carrying on of research problems" did as much as 50% (50.3%) of the principals indicate that they first encountered it as a part of their college/university education. Slightly less than 50% (43.3%) encountered "planning of research problems" first in their college, university training. Other activities first encountered in college/university training included:

Making of age — grade studies	36.4%
Planning of bonded indebtedness programs	31.3%
Planning of general extracurricular activity programs	30.6%

The study concluded with the following comment:

> There is a very definite question raised as to the desirability of training prospective principals in the performance of certain functions. Over half of these high school principals went into their principalship and bumped into 63 new activities (of 66) without any previous training (Sifert, 1943, p. 466).

A 1948 survey reviewed the types of courses offered in seventy-one elementary school principalship training programs. Thirty-four of the institutions offered a group of courses designed to prepare administrators. Thirty-one offered specific courses on the work of the elementary school principals. Only two of the institutions offered a combination of the usual teacher preparation courses and courses designed specifically for the principal. A combination of general administration courses and specific elementary school administration courses was offered by four of the institutions. The survey questionnaire listed five kinds of experiences which were usually included in training programs: lecture courses, research seminar, workshop procedures, visits to typical schools, and internship work in schools. Sixty-six of the programs included lecture courses; fifty-three included research seminars. Workshop procedures were used in fifty-one of the programs. Forty-nine of the programs incorporated visits to typical schools, and twenty incorporated internships. Six of the programs included *no* lecture courses, while two programs consisted of *only* lecture courses. One program used only workshop procedures. All except four programs used a combination of at least two different types of experiences. All five types of experiences were included in nine of the programs (DESP, 1948).

Commenting in 1954 on training programs for principals, Otto said, "Too many colleges have a piecemeal program and too few institutions have a broadly designed and competently staffed program" (Otto, 1954, p. 664). He saw, however, some genuine effort toward the improvement of these programs. Some colleges and universities had initiated two-year programs leading to some type of two-year degree. Many of these two-year programs included a supervised internship, which though not a panacea, was "the kind of broad and thorough preparation demanded by the principalship" (Otto, 1954, p. 664).

The Cooperative Program in Education Administration (CPEA), initiated in the 1950's, encouraged the improvement of training programs for administrators

through "new in-service and pre-service preparation programs, a wide variety of research studies on school administration, studies on community forces affecting educational administration, and numerous field studies" (Cooper, 1967, p. 395). CPEA's effect was great. Studies revealed that courses were less fragmented, seminar opportunities were increased, and several other disciplines were becoming involved in the training of administrators. Teaching methods also changed. The emphasis was on field studies and laboratory-type experiences, many times guided by individual student needs. The number of programs offering internships increased. The studies revealed several weak spots in administrator preparation, however. These included:

1. The profession at large has not yet reached agreement on the core of content which should be offered.
2. We have not as a profession taken an adequate look yet at the total education of school administrators, including their undergraduate experiences. As long as teacher education is the base for subsequent administrator preparation, then the quality or requirements of teacher education are of vital concern to professional level training.
3. There is a deadening repetition of content.
4. The education of school administrators is still affected too strongly by the traditional graduate requirements imposed by university-wide graduate councils.
5. Most programs in school administration are still inadequate in their attention to administrative processes. There is, in most cases, an under-emphasis on the variables in school administration as contrasted with the constants. Important as both may be, courses and field experiences must be found which put the administration student in a position to try out as well as to study the unpredictable demands which are placed upon school administrators.
6. Deans and professors who have responsibility for planning training programs for administrators must find ways to appraise the results of recent success in bringing other disciplines into the training of administrators (Moore, 1957, p. 70).

Looking at the preparation of elementary school principals in 1961, Dawson found four major types of content patterns:

1. No special work in administration
2. One or two required courses plus electives
3. Several required courses in administration coupled with some graduate work in psychology, sociology, anthropology, and related behavioral sciences
4. A year of graduate work including administrative knowledge and theory, behavioral sciences, technical skills, and electives (Dawson, 1961, p. 22)

He found the major trends to be (1) broadened basic education, (2) more selective screening, (3) greater attention to the nature and theory of the administrative process, (4) more interdisciplinary seminars, and (5) greater emphasis on human relationships and interpersonal communications.

A synopsis of training programs for principals in the 1960's is provided by Faber and Shearron.

> A modern preparatory program for elementary school principals includes courses in general administration taken in company with candidates for other kinds of administrative positions, courses in social and behavioral sciences, and courses in elementary school curriculum and administration. It utilizes such instructional techniques as the case study method, the use of simulated situations or other devices to help bridge the gap between theory and practice. It may utilize the internship as a means of providing some on-the-job experience for those with no or limited administrative experience (Faber and Shearron, 1970, p. 246).

Girard reported that the schools of education in the 1970's provided students with a "managerial overview of administrative issues and problems which are likely to be in educational practice." He felt that schools of education did not generate ad-

ministrative theory; they simply borrowed it from other disciplines. The major emphasis in educational administration was on application. He suggested changes in the training programs of principals including: (1) the addition of more courses; (2) the requirement of minors in specified area; (3) the housing of all schools of administration under one roof; and (4) the cooperation between various schools of administration (Girard, 1978).

Current preparatory programs for principals include required course work in curriculum, educational research, statistics, survey of educational administration, and supervision of instruction. The usual absence of a minor concentration area has allowed students the opportunity to take course work outside the department of educational administration. Usually these courses have been representative of programs in research/statistics, psychology, business administration, history, management science, and law (UCEA, 1978).

The need for a generalized course of study is obvious in that future job roles of individuals are usually unknown at the time a student enters a preparatory program. The variety and number of positions that fall within the context of educational administration create an impossibility in tailoring specialized programs for students at the Master's degree level. According to McIntyre (1979), a program should include organizational behavior and development, policy studies, decision making, human relationships, leadership, instructional improvement, management science and school law.

Present training programs for principals offer students many diverse opportunities and experiences. Numerous colleges and universities still provide rather traditional programs composed primarily of lecture-type courses, while a sizeable number of institutions of higher education have opted for competency-based principal training programs.

A rather recent trend in preparation programs for principals has been the provision of field-based experiences as a part of the formal training. Following the introduction of the Administrative Internship in Secondary School Improvement in 1963 by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), the internship, or practicum, has rapidly grown in popularity. The increasing emphasis on field-based experiences by institutions of higher education and certifying agencies justifies further discussion of this significant trend in the training of school principals.

Why Field-Based Experiences?

"A central concern of those who prepare educational administrators is the process by which an actor who is playing the role of teacher comes to play effectively the role of school principal. Historically, this has been done by thrusting an actor from one role abruptly into the other, with the survival-of-the-fittest law of the jungle controlling the outcome" (Ferreira, 1970). According to Ferreira, this concern for assisting those who wish to make the transition from teacher, counselor, assistant principal or other, to principal, led to the establishment of internships or practicums as an integral part of principalship training programs.

The internship or practicum in educational administration has often been compared to and patterned after the medical internship or the apprenticeship in law (Erlandson 1979, Lincoln, 1978). These internships or apprenticeships have served primarily to initiate new colleagues in the wide variety of issues, problems and decisions confronting full-fledged professionals.

The University Council for Educational Administration and the American Association of School Administrators jointly issued a set of action guides for the use of

the internship in administrative preparation (1964). The initial statement proclaims, "Professional preparation programs should include both the study and the practice of school administration." This statement reinforces the perceived importance of the marriage of theoretical classroom instruction to practical application in a job-like situation. Although numerous approaches to simulating job-like experiences have been tried with some success, field-based experiences have been the most favored means for the practical application of theory learned in the classroom.

Erlandson (1979) has noted that in classroom situations most learning occurs through spoken and written words. This contrasts with field situations where the intern must be sensitive to and able to integrate unstructured data from a broader range of data channels. Erlandson feels that the "lack of clear direct correlation between academic course-work in educational administration and success on the job may be to a great degree the result of failure to provide the prospective school administrator with the concrete experiences that alone can provide fertile soil for the development of the professional abstractions that are articulated in the academic classroom" (p. 151). "This failure to provide the 'concrete' experiences to support the theoretical bases leads to graduate students entering the profession who became syntactically adept at speaking jargon while becoming only minimally encumbered with the complexity of thought that lies behind it" (Erlandson, p. 153).

The administrative internship allows trainees to move beyond the cognitive levels of knowledge and comprehension which comprise the bulk of cognitive learning taking place in academic classrooms, to the more complex application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation levels. Administrative internships provide opportunities to practice skills to go with academic learning, which results in the development of competencies. A competency has been defined by Harris (1975, p. 17) as "any combination of knowledge and skill that is adequate for accomplishing some specified outcome. . . ." Building a knowledge base for the principalship without sufficient emphasis on skill development results in trainees who can talk about skills they may not be able to practice. Field-based training can provide opportunities for skill development.

What Is Field Basing?

Field basing, as applied to administrative training programs, is quite simply moving a portion of a trainee's learning experiences from a classroom setting to a field setting such as a school district, state department of education or another appropriate educational institution. Field-based experiences can be called by a variety of names, but are most frequently termed internships or practicums. For purposes of the discussion that follows, the terms internship and practicum will be used interchangeably, although many feel "internship" denotes a full-time assignment in a field setting, while "practicum" frequently is used to describe a less intensive field experience that involves trainees in a field setting during their spare time. McIntyre (1979, p. 31) described the internship thusly: "Unfortunately, internship is a word for everything from a full-time assignment in a field situation, for a semester or a school year, to a spare-time arrangement whereby a teacher continues to teach but does a few projects pertaining to administration during 'off' periods."

Field-based training experiences have served a variety of purposes including:

1. Sharing responsibility for the training of future educational leaders by local school districts, universities, state departments of education and others.
2. Allowing administrative trainees to meet certification or licensure requirements.

3. Bridging the gap between theoretical classroom training and practical application in job-like situations.
4. Expanding the pool of administrative applicants in general, and from selected groups such as women and/or minorities.
5. Deletion of those not suited to administration.
6. Improving leadership skills.
7. Teaching the routine tasks required in administrative roles.
8. Providing additional university services to sponsoring field agencies.
9. Stimulating the professional growth of host administrators.
10. Providing a means to evaluate administrative potential in prospective administrators.
11. Reducing temporarily the work load in certain areas for practicing administrators.
12. Socializing the prospective administrator to the field of administration (Lincoln, 1978; Davies, 1962; & Erlandson, 1979).

As is true regarding purpose, the structure for field based training of administrators has varied greatly. Some internships are highly formalized while others are extremely flexible and tailored to meet individual needs (Lincoln, 1978). Davies (1962) has defined the internship as consisting of the following elements:

1. The student's field experience which generally comes near the completion of the formal program of preparation.
2. A considerable block of time.
3. An opportunity for the student to carry real and continuous responsibilities in a field setting under the competent supervision of a practitioner.
4. Support at the policy level by the board of the institution in which the internship is being completed.
5. Joint sponsorship between the professional school (university) and the field agency (school district or other educational institution).

The scope of activities and responsibilities included in internships can be rather narrow or extremely broad depending on a number of factors. Almost any combination of the following areas, as well as others, have been included in internship experiences: scheduling, attendance, budgeting, transportation, pupil personnel, student activities, leadership, maintenance, instruction, staff personnel, school-community relations and general administration. Many different approaches to the internship have been tried. The following section describes some representative approaches to the administrative internship.

Prototypes for the Administrative Internship

Lincoln (1978) has proposed a conceptual framework for administrative internships. The framework identifies some general goals that might be accomplished by internships and outlines the circumstances under which these goals are most likely to be accomplished. Additionally, the model helps clarify for all those involved in the internship appropriate goals for interns based on career and professional needs at the time of the internship.

Lincoln's model has two main dimensions: structure and orientation (Figure 1). Structure exists on a continuum, with some internships being highly structured in that duties, functions and responsibilities for the intern are carefully spelled out prior to the intern assuming his/her role. Other internships are essentially unstructured, with [illegible], experiences or opportunities occurring in a more or less random nature. An

example of an unstructured internship according to Lincoln is "power shadowing," where an intern is constantly at the side of an effective administrator who is in a position to expose the intern to meaningful experiences involving policy-shaping and decison making.

FIGURE 1

Orientation	Responsibilities	
	Structured	Unstructured
Person-centered or role model		
Mission-, office-, or institution-centered		
Function-or process-centered		

NOTE. Administrative internships, a new conceptualization, by Y. S. Lincoln, *Planning and Changing*, Spring, 1978, 55-62. (Reprinted by permission.)

The orientation of an internship may be: person-centered or role model, mission-, office-, or institution-centered, or function- or process-centered. The orientation of the internship, according to Lincoln, should be highly correlated with the intern's professional goals and prior administrative experience.

The person-centered or role model orientation involves the placement of the intern with an exemplary administrative leader who serves as a model for the internship. This "power-shadowing" experience might be most appropriate for an intern who has little or no previous administrative experience and who can benefit by observing and participating alongside a person of recognized administrative ability.

The mission-, office-, or institution-centered orientation involves placement of the intern in a setting which is a "sub-set or specialization" within an area of administration. Lincoln uses student personnel administration, administration of continuing education and financial aid as some examples of this particular kind of orientation in higher education institutions. Parallels in the administration of public schools could easily be drawn and might include: business management, instruction, or personnel management. The mission-, office-, or institution-centered orientation focus would likely be chosen by interns who had some previous administrative experience, were well advanced in their academic programs and wished to specialize in a particular area of administration.

The function- or process-centered orientation is the most specialized orientation in the model. Interns utilizing this orientation would focus on a single aspect of administration such as budget construction or long-range planning, in order to gain an in-depth experience in a chosen function or process. Lincoln provides the following example of such an internship experience:

For instance, she/he might well begin such an internship in a Higher Education Commission,

> hearing requests from state institutions, move to the state legislature and work with a Finance or Ways and Means Committee, move back to a single institution to continue to study with a chief budget officer, and conclude his/her experience with actual budget construction at the college or department level (p. 58).

Lincoln suggests that this type of internship experience is most appropriate for advanced interns or those who may already have completed terminal degrees and are practicing professionals. Such an intensive experience would allow these interns to develop a single functional expertise, thereby equipping them to advance into high level administrative positions.

As one moves vertically down the orientation in Figure 1, the internship types move from the more general to the more specific and highly focused. Lincoln, however, is careful to point out that some overlap is bound to occur in both structure and orientation dimensions. This overlap can be desirable in that the model can be stretched in both dimensions to accomodate the peculiar needs of each individual intern.

Lincoln concludes the discussion of her conceptual framework with several considerations and cautions:

- The conceptualization implies that the intern is active in negotiating his/her own experience.
- Some of the variables that might come into play when assessing the identification of needs and the assignment of interns might include: age, sex, quantity and quality of previous administrative experience, career orientation and expectations, lateral mobility within a field, personality mix between intern and mentor as well as others.
- The intern should be provided with a broad range of experiences even in a highly-structured internship. The intern must be allowed to develop additional knowledge and skills beyond those which he/she already possesses.
- The model is descriptive and not prescriptive and should be used primarily as a device to assess previous experiences and propose future areas which will be of maximum benefit to the intern.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) instituted the Administrative Internship in Secondary School Improvement to develop new philosophies and methods of educational leadership. The internship program, the results of which are reported in *Experience in Leadership* (NASSP, 1970), was necessitated by the accelerating pace of educational experimentation and innovation characteristic of the middle 1950's. A major impetus for much of the innovation in the secondary school was the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School. This Commission, with financial backing from the Fund for the Advancement of Education and the Ford Foundation, sought to improve education in the face of a critical teacher shortage.

One of the key conclusions resulting from the work of the Commission was that the school principal had to be the "moving force" behind educational change and innovation. "He should be the one who knows what must happen in the school, has the program to ensure that it will happen, creates the climate to give innovation a chance to succeed, and works side by side with teachers and students to see that it does succeed" (NASSP, 1970, p. 6). The general feeling in 1960 was that formal training was not preparing high school administrators to exercise the kind of leadership necessary to bring about constructive educational change. The NASSP Internship Project was an

effort to produce a new kind of principal, one who could, in fact, provide leadership for change.

The NASSP Administrative Internship Project got underway in 1963 with a two-year pilot study involving 55 interns. The pilot study, underwritten by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, provided a one-year internship in a school setting under an innovative principal for selected interns. The primary responsibility for each intern was to upgrade the instructional program in the school to which he or she was assigned. The successful conclusion of the pilot study saw the expansion of the program to include 443 interns in 343 schools in a wide variety of settings over a span of six years. The expansion of the Project received financial backing from the Ford Foundation.

The NASSP Administrative Internship Project was traditional in some respects. The typical intern was a "33-year-old married man with a Master's degree, enrolled in a Doctoral program" (NASSP, p. 8). Although coordinated by NASSP, the primary components of the program were: the intern, the school, and the university. In other more fundamental respects, the program was quite different:

1. Where most internships had formerly consisted of a trainee's learning and copying his supervisor's practices, the NASSP intern had a responsibility to improve the instructional program of the school. This meant the intern was not to get bogged down in administrative detail, but was to go about establishing a unique role for himself — the role of a change agent.
2. The intent of the NASSP internship was not to maintain the educational status quo but to challenge and change it.

Eight project goals were reported in *Experience in Leadership:*

1. Emphasize the instructional role of the principal.
2. Implement innovative approaches to instruction.
3. Implement alternative courses of action to achieve a goal.
4. Provide a risk orientation for interns.
5. Introduce means for systematic evaluation.
6. Identify priorities in the use of time.
7. Identify innovative administrators for the future.
8. Provide in-service for interns.

Each of the goals was realized with a high degree of success. Additionally, the project was credited with strengthening the resolve of participating schools to continue as innovators, improving cooperation between schools and universities, and encouraging universities to develop internships as a part of their preparation programs for principals.

Sweeney (1980) conducted an interesting study which was designed to assess the effectiveness of a highly structured internship experience for producing change agents. The sample for the study included 57 interns from the NASSP Administrative Intership Program who had become practicing secondary principals and 62 non-interns who were secondary principals and were similar to the intern group in terms of career aspirations, experience and educational background.

A questionnaire was utilized to gather data to answer the following questions:

1. Does a structured internship produce administrators who are more successful at implementing innovative educational practices than principals who have been trained in a traditional program?
2. Does a structured internship produce principals who are more successful at

adopting innovative educational practices than principals who have been trained in a traditional program?

3. Are those who participate in structured internships likely to maintain educational change efforts?
4. Do those who participate in structured internships feel more or less proficient in discharging their responsibility in administrative areas other than educational leadership? (Sweeney, p. 42)

The results of the study supported the following conclusions:

1. The was no significant difference between the two groups (interns and non-interns) in the number of innovations implemented in their schools.
2. Interns did not adopt a significantly larger number of innovative educational practices than did non-interns.
3. Each group (interns and non-interns) averaged trying and abandoning two innovative practices.
4. There was no significant difference in the perceptions of the two groups regarding their ability to discharge their responsibility in other administrative areas.

The major conclusion of Sweeney's study was that there was no "empirical evidence to support the use of an internship for training educational change agents" (p. 44). Sweeney did conclude, however, that the structured internship did produce principals with more confidence in their ability to exercise educational leadership. This, he felt, could perhaps ultimately lead to a higher success rate as educational innovators due to increased levels of confidence.

Barrilleaux (1972) reported on a cooperative competency-based administrative internship program between Tulane University and seven parish school districts in Southeast Louisiana. The program stressed the use of performance objectives in the design of the administrative internship with evaluation based on determining whether or not interns could execute the projected behaviors spelled out in the aforementioned performance objectives. Forty performance objectives were categorized into four key processes: prescriptive, implementive, diagnostic, and evaluative. The major thrust of the objectives was to orient the interns in the instructional leadership role of the principal. Three sets of observers, including the interns themselves, supervising administrators and university supervisors, participated in evaluation. Against a standard of 90 percent of the learners achieving 90 percent of the anticipated outcomes, the three evaluating groups observed respectively that 27, 31, and 34 percent of the interns achieved 90 percent of the objectives.

Some significant findings reported by Barrilleaux were:

1) The amount of time supervising administrators can spend or will spend interacting with university interns and university supervisors is typically insufficient.

2) Some approach to internships that allows performance objectives to remain constant while varying the time factor for achieving objectives needs to be examined.

The amount of time spent by interns in a field-based setting was not reported in this reference. Additionally, since no technique for selectively choosing performance objectives based on the individual needs of the interns was reported, it must be assumed that all interns were required to demonstrate all 40 of the identified performance objectives.

McCleary model for competency-based training for school administrators is

designed for individualization and contains three primary components. The first component includes the type of competency to be attained. McCleary identified three types of competencies: technical, conceptual and human. The second component of the model outlines the level of competence to be achieved. These are familiarity, understanding and application. The third component includes the content (subject matter) and processes (methods) to be used to develop the needed competency.

One method of instruction included in McCleary's model is the internship. When competently used, the internship can be expected to provide a low level of familiarity, medium level of understanding and high level of application. McCleary ranks the internship high in acquiring technical competencies and medium in acquiring conceptual and human competencies.

A thorough understanding of McCleary's analysis of the internship requires an examination of the other sixteen instructional processes he describes, their levels of learning, and competencies to be learned. For example, when the internship is compared to reading, reading is rated higher in acquiring familiarity and lower in acquiring application as a level of learning. Similarly, in assessing the types of competency to be learned, the internship rates high in technical competency, while reading rates low. Effective use of McCleary's model seems to require knowing the relationship of one instructional process to another in regard to the intended outcomes.

The application of McCleary's theory has been individualized through the development of competency-based modules (ILM Learning Modules) that allow a student to develop a competency at the student's own pace, without waiting for a group process. Each competency-based module (over fifty have been developed and field tested) is designed according to one format. First, a tape-flip chart presentation provides a concentrated overview of the content. Second, a Study Guide provides sources for further investigation, study questions, group discussion guide, and performance product suggestions. Third, a log sheet provides for tracking personal progress, and finally, an evaluation form provides feedback. Supplementary materials and exercises are included when needed.

As of 1978, McCleary reported the use of ILM in more than one hundred universities and in a much larger number of school districts. McCleary has indicated a need for further work in the development of other formats, pre- and post- assessment techniques, studies which establish relationships between training and performance, and further revision and validation of competencies and competency statements.

The planned field experience for students in educational administration at Ohio State University is designed to provide general and indepth administrative experiences. It is intended to be individualized and uses self-assessment as a basis for planning the field experience.

This self-assessment, entitled *Administrative Competency Assessment and Development System,* attempts to measure students' understanding, experience, and training in eight administrative processes. These processes are planning, organizing, coordinating, communicating, stimulating, evaluating, controlling, and changing. Students assess their level of understanding, experience and training on several listed competencies within each general process area. Upon completing the self-assessment, students confer with faculty advisors at which time the advisor can add his or her impressions. The self-assessment form and conference become the basis for determining specific plans for the internship or field experience.

Melvin (1977) reported on efforts by Indiana State University to develop a somewhat

different approach to the internship for the preparation of school principals. The Experimental Preparation Program, initiated in the summer of 1971, contained these rather unique features:

1. The Indiana Department of Public Instruction permitted a departure from the traditional principal preparation program which facilitated the design of a new program of coursework.

2. University admissions requirements such as grade point averages and the Graduate Record Examination were dropped, and prospective interns were identified and recommended by practicing principals. Principals who recommended interns agreed to provide the intern with a three-hour block of time daily for hands-on administrative experience in the school.

3. The internship, along with accompanying seminars, took place over one academic year. The intern received 12 semester hours of credit for the experience.

Other features of the program, such as released time and financial arrangements for the interns as well as the involvement of university supervisors and host principals, were not radical departures from previous practices as reported in other internship programs and were thus traditional in nature.

An evaluation undertaken at the conclusion of the third year of the program compared the placement potential of intern participants to that of participants in the University's traditional program. Hiring officials considered the interns better prospects than non-interns in fifty-eight percent of the cases. Academic achievement of interns and non-interns was approximately the same, but positive attitudes of interns, host administrators and university supervisors toward the internship program were considered a positive feature of the program. Perhaps the most convincing argument in favor of the program is that it has been further refined, expanded to include more participants, and is being continued as one of two program options for those who are preparing to become principals.

The initiation of administrative internship programs for minorities and women is a relatively recent trend (Adkison 1979, Stringer 1977). These administrative internships have come about largely due to the traditionally low representation of these groups in key administrative positions and a general concern that the actual percentages may be declining. Project ICES (Internships, Certification, Equity-Leadership and Support) is representative of internship programs designed for women and/or minorities.

Project ICES was implemented to test a model for increasing the number of women holding administrative positions in the public school system of Kansas (Adkison, 1979). In order to accomplish this goal, the University of Kansas, Department of Education and the United School Administrators (umbrella administrators organization) formed a cooperative relationship with ten school districts.

Each district selected one or two women teachers to participate in the program and provided field-based settings where the participants could work as administrative interns for one year. The project paid each intern a salary that was less than half the average teacher's salary in most instances. The project staff provided technical assistance to the interns and the districts in the design and supervision of intern programs. The University provided training through regular coursework and special workshops.

Major goals of the project included:

1. to change attitudes of those who hire administrators,
2. to add women to the pool of qualified applicants for administrative positions.

3. to help women gain sponsors and access to formal and informal networks of educators in the state.
4. to disseminate information about the project to state and national publics.

Adkison has identified six major sources of conflict among participants in the project (pp. 2-3). Careful consideration of these conflict sources could serve to avoid similar conflicts among those cooperating in the initiation of projects:

1. The varied perspectives of practitioners and academics led to disagreement over decisions relating to a project coordinator, the kind of experiences most valuable for interns, and breadth versus depth of experiences.

2. The newness of the organization led to conflict concerning roles and the relationship among the roles.

3. Often the goals of the internship program were subordinated to organizational goals of the cooperating agencies that were more directly related to these agencies' central goals. Concerns over contract negotiations, hiring, and the opening and closing of school took precedence over ICES board meetings, in-service, and so forth.

4. District administrators, as well as project staff, experienced role overload as a result of assuming additional responsibilities associated with the project without having other responsibilities within their employing agencies reduced.

5. Although the cooperating units with the project were interdependent, some were more dependent than others, thereby creating some stress and conflict. The school districts, since they chose interns and provided field settings for the internship, were the most independent and could, in fact, operate in isolation if they chose to do so. The variation in degree of dependence among cooperating agencies made cooperation among some agencies (school districts) less necessary or desirable than for other agencies (project staff). When conflicting demands were made on interns, they were more likely to give preference to the wishes of the school districts. These experiences and considerations led Adkison to conclude: "the success of the program at every stage depends on the school district" (p. 3).

6. Because of the separation by distance between the project's components, a weak informal system developed. This handicapped the development of informal relationships among project participants that would promote mutual understanding, trust, and support.

Adkison reports that several mechanisms emerged to deal with the conflict resulting from the factors noted above. Fewer project-wide meetings were held, thereby reducing the occasion for joint decision making and, hence, conflict. Greater autonomy was given to district administrators in placing interns and designing training activities. Since no choices were relevant to all members of the Executive Committee of the project, the project staff made decisions unilaterally after consulting with those committee members who might have an interest in a particular decision.

The result of greater autonomy being granted to individual operating units was termed "healthy fragmentation" by Adkison. The organization of the project was characterized as an "array of distinct elements linked by infrequent communication to a director and a coordinator." This has led to greater administrator costs for the project and a continuous effort on the part of the project staff to maintain and keep informed about the organization. However, conflict has been reduced and project goals have been met or exceeded (three-fourths of the interns have been offered administrative positions in Kansas).

Adkison offers this final analysis of the program:

This analysis suggests that in organizations characterized by high potential for conflict, few formal conflict-reducing structures, and participants lacking time and opportunities for negotiating organization-wide policies, components will be only loosely coupled to any central unit and to one another. This arrangement enables the participants to define their roles, responsibilities, and relationships clearly and to maintain their enthusiasm for their work, perhaps it may also suggest guidelines for those interested in implementing similar interagency structures (p. 4).

Obstacles to Field Basing

The literature reports numerous obstacles to the development and implementation of successful internship programs for the preparation of principals. An awareness of potential pitfalls should prove useful to those who plan for, or are participants in, internship programs. Following are major problems associated with field-based training for potential principals as noted in a review of the literature:

1. There are no known studies of predictive validity that can demonstrate effectiveness of field-based experiences.
2. There appears to be an inadequate understanding of the knowledge base and its functions for preparing administrators.
3. Organization of learning activities is a problem for program planners. There is no formula to determine how much learning should be individualized and how much should occur in groups.
4. There does not appear to be a universally accepted method or methods for training good administrators, male or female.
5. There is considerable disagreement over the kind and depth of experiences that should be provided to interns. Some favor an emphasis on routine building administration while others prefer that interns produce educational products during the internship experience, thereby acquiring a depth of experience in selected areas.
6. Field-based training is expensive, requiring considerably more time, energy and staff than classroom training.
7. Role ambiguity for interns, host administrators and university supervisors can lead to conflict and resentment.
8. Because districts feel they have a right to control the training of "their people" and are more independent than other cooperating agencies it can be difficult to promote joint planning and cooperative effort.

Recommendations for Increasing the Effectiveness of Field-Based Training Experiences

Based on the review of literature the following recommendations or suggestions are offered for increasing the effectiveness of field-based training programs:

1. The ultimate success of internship programs rests largely with school districts. Therefore, school districts must be totally committed to such programs before they can be successfully implemented. In the absence of school district support, internship programs should not be attempted.
2. Due to uneven levels of interdependence among parties participating in internship programs (school districts, universities, professional associations), cooperation will depend on there being a significant reward for each party involved. Programs should be designed to insure that each party does in fact realize a significant reward.
3. Role expectations for those participating in internship programs (interns, host administrators, university supervisors) must be clearly defined at the outset of a program. This will serve to reduce misunderstanding and conflict.

4. There is considerable support for educating "perceptive generalists" rather than specialists during the internship experience. There is reason to believe that most interns will pick up the necessary administrative detail once they are actually holding down an administrative job, therefore, the internship should be devoted to training educational leaders or change agents.

5. Internship experiences must be flexible to meet the varied personal and professional needs of participants. Some conceptual model such as the one proposed by Lincoln (1978) could be used as an overall planning guide, but highly structured programs in which each intern has an identical set of experiences should be avoided.

6. During the internship experience there should be a blend of classroom experience with the field experience to ensure a firm bond between the theoretical and the practical. Interns must learn the right way to do things in conjunction with the reasons why certain alternatives are better than others.

7. A variety of methods (reading, guided practice, group discussions, seminars) should be used to train interns. Methods are neither good nor bad, but are effective or ineffective depending on the situation and purpose for which they are used.

8. Adequate time for the internship should be provided. Most are convinced that an extended period of time when the prospective administrator can be a student of administration in a field setting is desirable. During this period the internship should not be subordinated to another role but should, in fact, be the primary role.

Future Trends in Principal Training Programs

The preceding section has outlined the major developments in training programs for principals. In February, 1981, a national survey was conducted to ascertain the directions the training of school principals was taking. Based on a review of the literature and conversations with university faculty members, an instrument was designed to determine possible trends in certification requirements and program design/content. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they thought each trend to be increasing, decreasing, or static. If the respondents foresaw a change (i.e., increase or decrease), they were asked whether they perceived the change to be desirable or undesirable. Respondents could also indicate if they were undecided about its desirability. Additionally, the respondents were asked to project when the changing trend was most likely to reach its peak: within five years, within ten years, or after ten years. Possible trends in the area of certification requirements were:

1. the number of college credits required
2. required internships and practicums
3. successful completion of comprehensive examinations prior to certification
4. the number of years of teaching experience required
5. requirements for teaching experience at the level of anticipated administrative certification

There were fifteen program design and content trends listed on the instrument. These were:

1. the requirement for internships and practicums
2. the number of college credits required for certification
3. individualization of educational administration programs
4. the popularity of competency-based educational administration programs
5. educational administration programs especially for women and minorities

6. the merging of elementary and secondary levels in educational administration programs
7. requirements for courses outside the college of education
8. cooperative educational administration programs between colleges and local school districts
9. the financing of internships by local school districts
10. involvement of state departments of education in pre-service training of educational administrators
11. involvement of professional organizations in educational administration programs
12. the emphasis on human relations training in educational administration programs
13. the emphasis on school law in educational administration programs
14. the emphasis on school finance in educational administration programs
15. the emphasis on contract negotiations in educational administration programs

Additional space was left at the bottom of the instrument for respondents to make comments concerning other trends.

The instrument was sent to 204 persons. First, a letter and three survey forms were sent to the State Superintendent of Education in each of fifty states and the District of Columbia. The State Superintendent was asked to give one instrument and letter of explanation to the person in the state department who was primarily responsible for certification. He was also requested to give the remaining two instruments to an exemplary elementary principal and an exemplary secondary principal within the state. Additionally, fifty-one professors of education (one from each state and the District of Columbia) were asked to respond to the instrument. The majority of these were chosen from a listing of the National Advisory Board for the NASSP Committee of Professors of Secondary School Administration and Supervision. Several states did not have professors representing them on this committee. Therefore, professors from these states were randomly selected from Who's Who of the American Association of School Administrators to participate in this survey.

A total of 104 individuals responded to the instrument (50.9%). Forty elementary and secondary principals returned the instrument; thirty-four professors of education responded; as did thirty individuals responsible for state certification. The following analysis reveals what these groups of respondents feel are major trends in the training of principals.

An arbitrary cut-off point of 75% was chosen as the significant percentage for reporting trends that were seen by the respondents to be either increasing or static. Since no trends were seen to be decreasing by 75% of the respondents, the three trends that were rated to be decreasing by the greatest number of respondents were reported. Appendix A contains bar graphs displaying total responses to each of the items.

Increasing Trends

Over 75% of the responding elementary and secondary principals saw three increasing trends. All of these trends were seen to be desirable by a majority of these respondents. Also, most of the respondents felt the increasing trends were most likely to peak within five or ten years. Thirty-three of the principals saw the emphasis on school law and contract negotiations in educational administration programs as increasing. Only one respondent felt the increased emphasis on school law was undesirable, while four felt that the increase in contract negotiations was undesirable.

Thirty of the principals saw the emphasis on human relations training as increasing. None felt this trend was undesirable.

The trend toward the emphasis on contract negotiations in educational administration was seen to be increasing by twenty-five of the persons responsible for certification. Three of these respondents felt that this trend was undesirable.

Static Features

According to 75% or more of the respondents, several of the features are remaining the same. Thirty-one of the elementary and secondary principals saw the number of years of teaching experience required for certification as remaining the same. Twenty-seven of the state department of education certification persons also saw the number of years of teaching experience required for certification as constant. These state department representatives felt the requirements for teaching experience at the level of anticipated administrative experience were remaining the same (23). The majority of professors of education also felt that the number of years of teaching experience required for certification was remaining the same (27).

Decreasing Trends

Very few trends were seen as decreasing. Thirteen of the professors of education (38%) saw two decreasing trends — a decrease in the popularity of competency-based educational administration programs and a decrease in the financing of internships by local school districts. Three of the responding professors felt the decrease in the popularity of competency-based educational administration programs was undesirable. Eleven of the thirteen professors saw the decreased financing of the internships by local school districts as undesirable. Nine of the elementary and secondary principals also felt that the financing of internships by local school districts was decreasing, and seven of them felt this trend was undesirable. Nine elementary and secondary principals also saw a decrease in the merging of elementary and secondary levels of educational administration programs. This trend was rated undesirable by four of these respondents.

Planners of principal training programs of the future would be well advised to study such findings. The five trends cited most as increasing are:

- required internships and practicums for certification
- emphasis on human relations training in educational administration programs
- emphasis on school law in educational administration programs
- emphasis on school finance in educational administration programs
- emphasis on contract negotiations in educational administration programs

The respondents have indicated that for the most part these trends are desirable ones. Since the financing of internships by local school districts is thought to be decreasing by respondents, and the majority who indicate such a decrease feel that it is an undesirable trend, planners must begin to search for funding for these internships and practicums. The need for and desirability of field-based experiences (i.e., practicums and internships), coupled with increased emphasis on human relations training, school law, school finance and contract negotiations, have important implications for principal training programs.

Contingency Framework for Administrator Development: A Model

Effective principal training programs need to clearly reflect the relationship of

theory to practice. A framework for accomplishing this objective can be found in Sergiovanni's, *et al*, discussion of contingency theory (1980). Contingency theory is a general framework for analyzing and selecting from an array of existing theories those elements which are useful for a given circumstance. It is based on the rejection of the idea that any one model of organization and administration is superior to others in all situations. Instead, according to contingency theory, appropriate organization and administrative processes and choices are contingent upon the particular character or nature of the organization itself, the environment of the organization at a given time, and the task(s) the organization seeks to accomplish at a given time. An application of contingency theory to administrator training programs seems appropriate when considering multidimensional components. This is the nature of the Contingency Framework for Administrator Development Model, CFAD.

CFAD can be conceptualized in three dimensions: (a) Administrative Task Areas; (b) Administrative Processes; and (c) Administrator Characteristics. The model (Figure 2) can be illustrated in rotating, concentric circles, which are intended to provide a variety of match-ups among the task-process-characteristic dimensions. The implementation of the model is through the design and delivery of activities which provide students' varied experiences based on assessment of student needs. As a basis for an administrative training program, CFAD provides for the integration of technical, conceptual and personal skills.

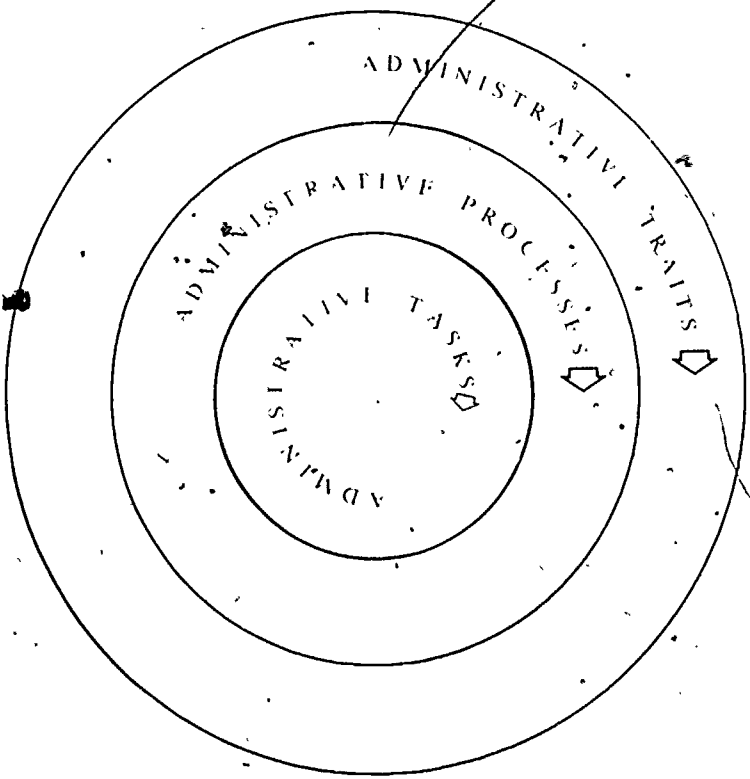


FIGURE 2. · CFAD Model

Dimensions of CFAD

A review of literature supports the selection of eight administrative task areas (McLeary, 1971; Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, 1955; Rosenburg, 1973; Stansberry, 1976). These task areas comprise the center ring of the concentric circles and are listed and defined below:

1. Instruction and Curriculum Development — The assessment, development, implementation and evaluation of the total educational program of the school.
2. Pupil Personnel — The management of attendance, guidance and counseling, discipline and health services for the total student population of the school.
3. School-Community Relations — The establishment and maintenance of effective communications among the school and all of its internal and external audiences.
4. Staff Personnel — The management of all activities related to recruitment, selection, assignment, development and termination of all certified and non-certified employees in the school.
5. School Plant — The management of an efficient program of operation and maintenance of the physical plant based on determined needs and available resources.
6. School Auxiliary Services — The management of safe and effective transportation and food service programs.
7. Organization and Structure — The coordination of planning and scheduling for the purpose of complying with regulations which include local board policies and state and federal guidelines and legislation.
8. School Finance and Business Management — The administration of all budgeting and accounting procedures for the total school.

These eight general task areas can be further defined into specific tasks to be included in a variety of learning activities.

The second dimension of the CFAD model is composed of seven administrative processes identified by Gulic, based on the work of Fayol (Lipham and Hoeh, 1974). These processes, POSDCoRB, have provided the basis of numerous studies and were termed by Fayol as the "life functions of administration" (p. 22). The processes form the second concentric circle of the CFAD model and are listed and defined below:

1. Planning — Purposeful preparation culminating in a decision which serves as the basis for subsequent action.
2. Organizing — The subdivision, arrangement and relating of tasks to create operating unity of the organization.
3. Staffing — Obtaining and assembling the personnel needed to execute the plans of the organization.
4. Directing — Starting action to keep the organization moving toward its goal.
5. Coordinating — The synchronization and unifying of actions of groups of people.
6. Reporting — Ascertaining how well objectives have been satisfied and how well performance conforms to predetermined standards.
7. Budgeting — Allocating of resources to accomplish the goals of the organization.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals initiated an assessment center project in 1975 wherein twelve behaviors and skills were selected to be observed in prospective administrators. For the purpose of the CFAD model, those twelve behavioral skills have provided a basis for determining eleven personal characteristics are important to successful administrators. These personal characteristics provide

the third dimension of the CFAD model and comprise the spokes of the outer concentric circle. They are listed and defined below *(Hersey, 1978):*

1. Judgment — Ability to reach logical conclusions and make high quality decisions based on available information.
2. Decisiveness — Ability to recognize when a decision is required and to act quickly.
3. Leadership — Ability to get others involved in a task, to recognize when a group requires direction and to effectively guide the group in its accomplishment of a task.
4. Sensitivity — Ability to perceive the needs, concerns and personal problems of others.
5. Stress Tolerance — Ability to perform under pressure and during opposition; to think on one's feet.
6. Oral Communication — Ability to make a clear oral presentation of facts or ideas.
7. Written Communication — Ability to express ideas clearly in writing; to write appropriately for different audiences.
8. Range of Interests — Ability to discuss a variety of subjects and desire to actively participate in various events.
9. Personal Motivation — Ability to be self-policing; need to achieve in all activities attempted; evidence that work is important to personal satisfaction.
10. Educational Values — Possession of a well-reasoned educational philosophy; receptiveness to new ideas and change.
11. Conceptualization — Ability to integrate and synthesize multiple organizational components into a logical framework for action.

Application of CFAD

A successful training program for school building principals must carefully blend these three dimension — task areas, processes, and characteristics — into a balanced delivery system that provides the administrative candidate with ultimate effectiveness in all areas. The CFAD Model provides development of technical, conceptual, and human skills, and allows the student to see how the facets of "principal" fit together logically. Figure 3 illustrates a possible combination of components within the three dimensions.

The CFAD Model is a conceptual framework for planning and implementing a program to prepare future school administrators. It illustrates three essential dimensions— administrative task areas, administrative processes, administrator characteristics — in concentric circles, for the purpose of allowing match-ups of any components included in the three dimensions. Once the match-ups are identified, appropriate theory and application are introduced to the student so that the student understands how the three dimensions are integrated. Application becomes possible through various activities designed to integrate the three dimensions. Theory is introduced as it relates to the activity undertaken. The degree to which a student becomes involved in the various components depends on each individual student's knowledge, skills, and self-awareness.

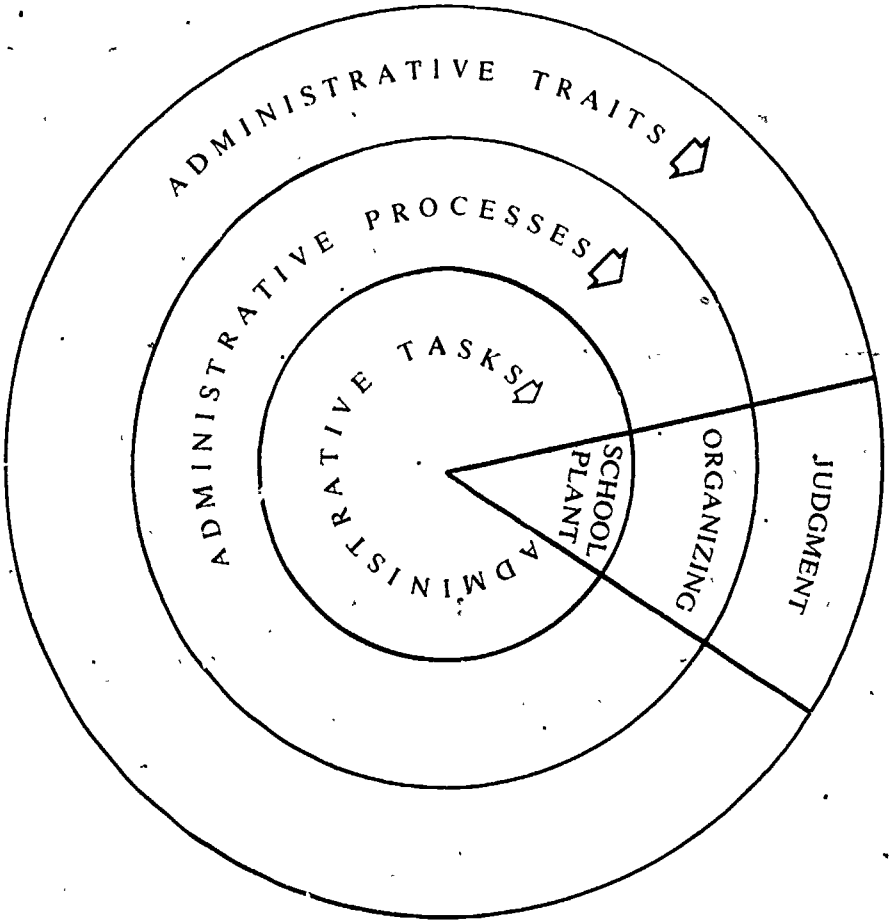


FIGURE 3. Combination of components within the three dimensions of the CFAD Model

Activities

The intent of the concentric circles of the CFAD Model is to generate multiple activities that allow students to demonstrate personal characteristics while engaged in a process to complete a particular objective in a given task area. An example of a match-up is illustrated below.

Task Area	Process	Characteristic
Curriculum and Instruction	Directing	Leadership

ACTIVITY: Design and implement a process for developing Social Studies goals for one of the following buildings: (a) k - grades; (b) 6-8 grades; (c) 9-12 grades.

bank of activities can be developed and coded so that a spin of any wheel in the AD Model could be demonstrated through selected activities.

Theory

Many students have difficulty realizing the relationship of theory to practice, largely due to the lack of opportunities to see the two integrated. The CFAD Model allows what most textbooks do not — an experiential relationship that integrates theory and practice when it is appropriate. For example, using the illustration in Figure 3, group theory, leadership theory, and motivation theory would be appropriate theory bases to facilitate the completion of the identified activity.

Approximately a dozen theories have been identified that can be incorporated into the CFAD Model. These are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Theoretical Components of CFAD Model

Role	Communication
Motivation	Organization
Climate	Social Systems
Leadership	General Systems
Decision-making	Political Systems
Values	Group

The task of the supervisor instructor is to guide the student through the exploration of theoretical constructs that obviously relate to the activities in which the student is involved.

Assessment

Prior to any student involvement in the CFAD Model, self assessment data should be gathered that indicates a student's awareness of personal characteristics, experiences in administrative processes, and knowledge of administrative task areas. This data can be used to predict the areas of concentration a student will need in order to be broad-based in educational administration and allows for the design of an individualized program for the student.

Post assessment instruments will indicate changes in knowledge of task areas, expertise in demonstrating administrative processes, and strengths and weaknesses in personal characteristics.

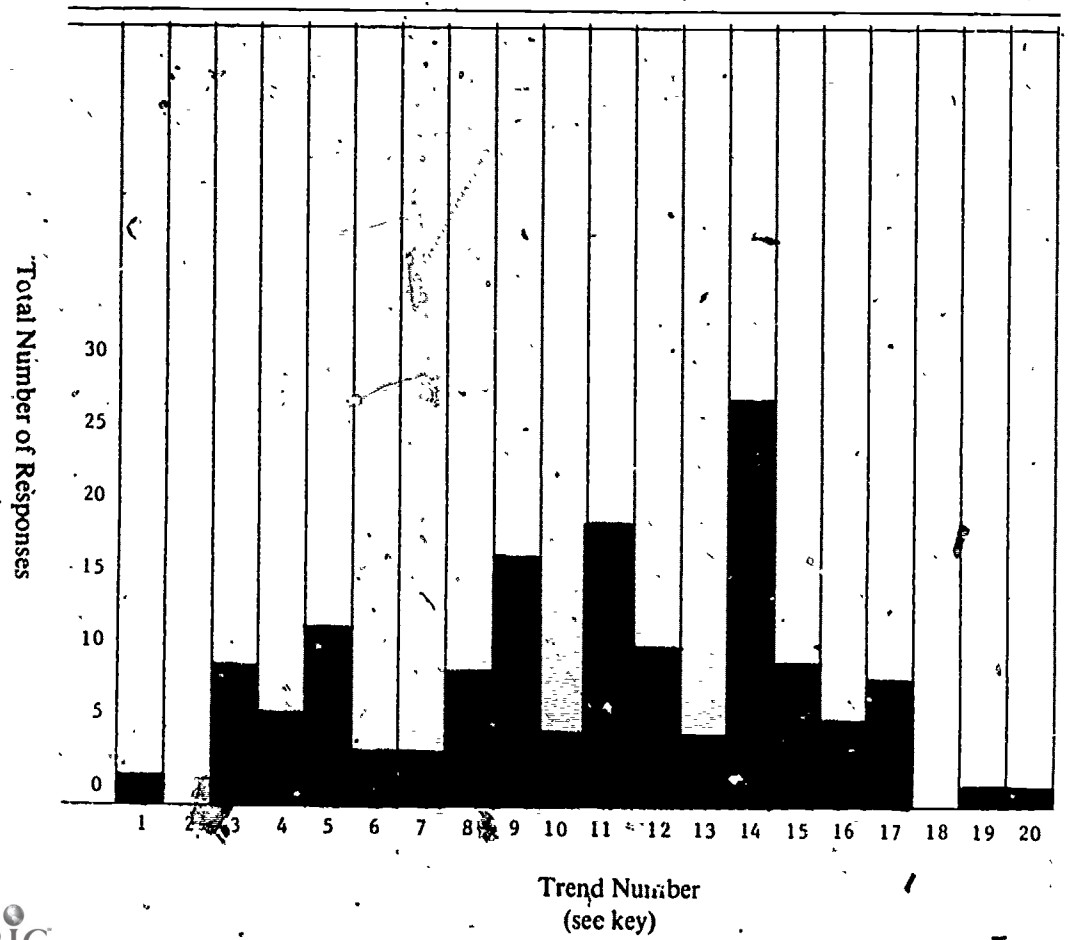
Throughout the training program, the degree of concentration in all of the components of the three dimensions is dependent upon the student's perceived and demonstrated strength in any given component. Self-assessment and instructor/supervisor assessment jointly indicate such strengths.

Conclusion

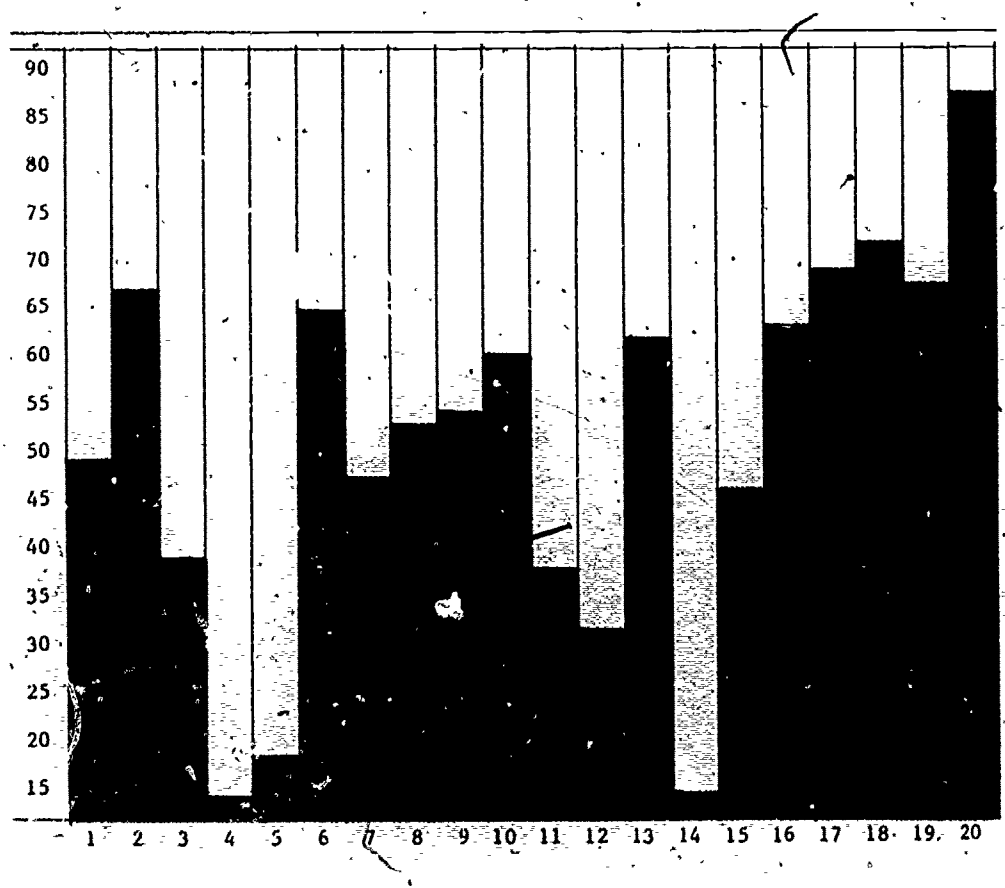
CFAD is a conceptual model for a training program for school administrators that can integrate administrative task areas, administrative processes and administrator characteristics through theory and application. It is a flexible model that allows for individualized program designs. With computerized assistance, the program can be effectively managed with maximum results.

APPENDIX A

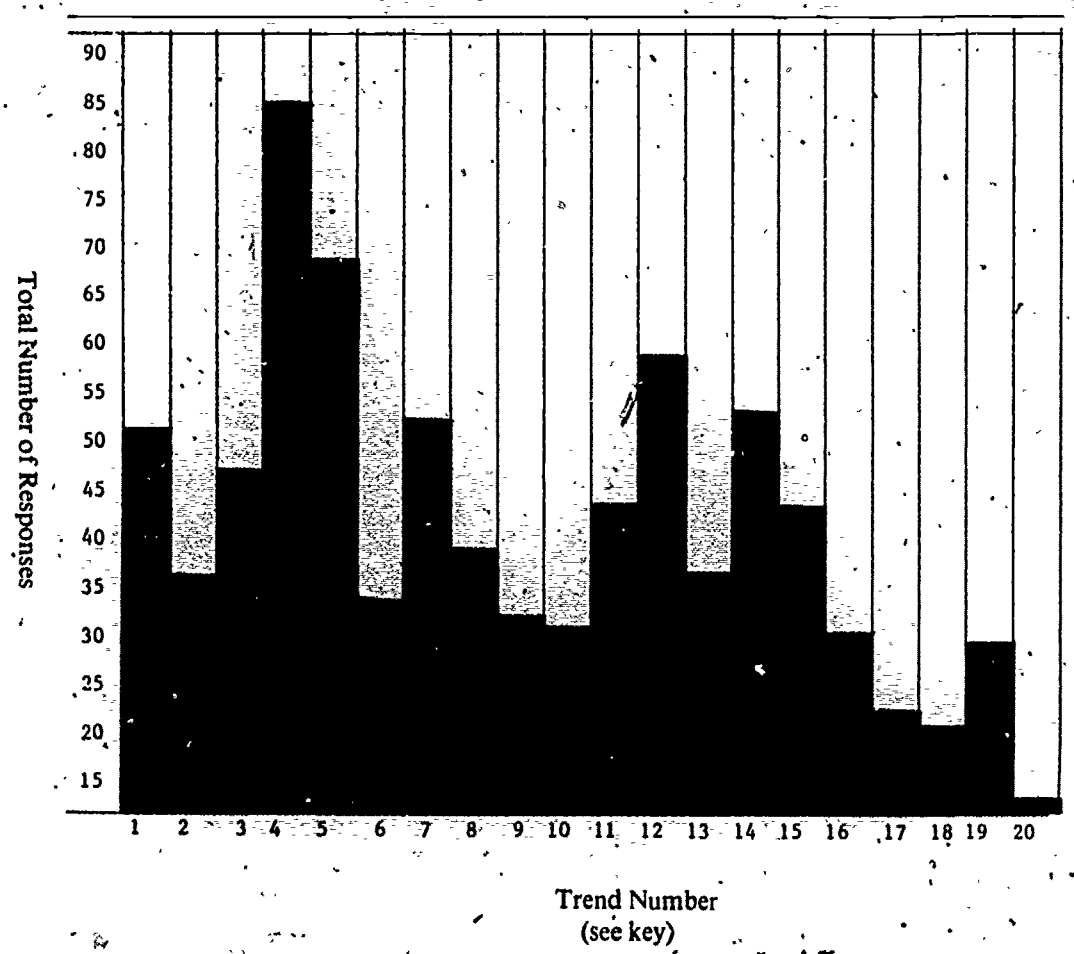
DECREASING TRENDS



INCREASING TRENDS



STATIC FEATURES



KEY

Trend Number	
1	The number of college credits required for certification is:
2	Required internships and practicums for certification are:
3	Successful completion of comprehensive examinations prior to certification is:
4	The number of years of teaching experience for certification is:
5	Requirements for teaching experience at the level of anticipated administrative experience are:
6	The requirement for internships and practicums is:
7	The number of college credits required for certification is:
8	Individualization of educational administration programs is:
9	The popularity of competency-based educational administration programs is:
10	Educational administration programs especially for women and minorities are:
11	The merging of elementary and secondary levels in educational administration programs is:
12	Requirements of courses outside the college of education are:
13	Cooperative educational administration programs between colleges and local school districts are:
14	The financing of internships by local school districts are:
15	Involvement of state departments of education in pre-service training of educational administrators is:
16	Involvement of professional organizations in educational administration programs is:
17	The emphasis on human relations training in educational administration programs is:
18	The emphasis on school law in educational administration programs is:
19	The emphasis on school finance in educational administration programs is:
20	The emphasis on contract negotiations in educational administration programs is:

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